Decoding Immigrants’ Electoral Involvement in Sweden

Avkodning av migranternas valdeltagande i Sverige

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Abstract

This paper studies the political participation (electoral) among non-EU immigrants in Sweden, via various socio-demographic, motivational, and relational factors. The theoretical frame is based on Verba et al.'s Civic Voluntarism model and previous research. Variables studied include language skills, education, income, occupation, political interest, feelings of belonging, and network memberships. The study relies on 115 survey data collected from municipalities such as Stockholm, Göteborg, Västerås, Örebro, Lindesberg, Lidköping, Vara, Trollhättan, Alingsås. As the paper’s dependent variable is binary (voted-not voted) the logistic regression method was chosen for analysis.

The main findings indicate that language proficiency is a significant factor, positively affecting political participation of non-EU immigrants. This confirmed Pierre Bourdieu's notion of language as a societal resource, and how people that master it better get better opportunities. Economic factors, particularly education, occupation indicated positive connections with political participation.

Motivational aspects, such as interest in political discussions and feelings of belonging to Sweden, demonstrated substantial correlations with voting behavior. Immigrants exhibiting interest in political discussions and a sense of connection with Swedish society displayed heightened levels of political activity, strengthening prior research by Verba et al. on socio-psychological factors.

Group memberships, specifically involvement in interest groups and work-related associations, significantly influenced voting patterns. The main goal of the paper is to contribute modest insights into immigrants’ political participation in Sweden using quantitative methods. Suggestions for future research include qualitative methods for deeper insights and the exploration of additional influential factors to deepen the knowledge in this sphere.

Key Words: Political participation, non-EU immigrant, CVM, motivation, resources, networks
Contents
1. Introduction........................................................................................................................................ 1
   1.2. Research objectives/questions ............................................................................................... 3
   1.3 Delimitations........................................................................................................................... 3
   1.4 Disposition.................................................................................................................................. 4
2. Theoretical framework.................................................................................................................... 4
   2.1 Definition of Political Participation and other Key Terms..................................................... 4
   2.2 Previous research..................................................................................................................... 6
   2.3 Theoretical framework – Civic Voluntarism Model ............................................................... 10
      2.3.1 Resources and political participation.................................................................................. 11
      2.3.2 Political motivation............................................................................................................. 12
      2.3.3 Networks........................................................................................................................... 13
3. Method and material ..................................................................................................................... 14
   3.1 Quantitative method ................................................................................................................ 14
   3.2 Operationalization (Survey Analysis)..................................................................................... 14
   3.3 Sampling and Data................................................................................................................... 16
   3.4 Data summary, descriptive statistics....................................................................................... 17
   3.5 Research strategy .................................................................................................................... 19
   3.6 Index ......................................................................................................................................... 20
   3.7 Compute and recoded Variables............................................................................................. 20
   3.8 Ethical considerations.............................................................................................................. 21
   3.9 Validity, reliability, and generalizability................................................................................ 22
4. Results and analysis ..................................................................................................................... 23
   4.1 Resources ................................................................................................................................... 24
   4.2 Motivation .................................................................................................................................. 24
   4.3 Networks ................................................................................................................................... 25
5. Discussion and conclusion .......................................................................................................... 26
6. References....................................................................................................................................... 28
7. Appendix 1 (survey)...................................................................................................................... 32
1. Introduction

Migration is a much-discussed topic in EU, including Sweden. Migration itself is a continuous phenomenon and has existed throughout human history. According to Everet S. Lee (1966) and Ravenstein, E. G. (1889), migration can be explained by “push and pull” factors. “Push factors” are more negative and include categories such as war, political and religious oppressions, natural disasters, life threatening conditions etc. “Pull factors” are job opportunities, education, better access to medical care, marriage...

According to UNHCR (2022) data people who were displaced and found new home in Europe reached 21.8 million by the end of 2022. Between 2004-2022 Sweden has accepted around 700,000 asylum seekers and many individuals who were born outside the country for various reasons (SCB 2023a). According to Sweden Statistics (SCB) data in 2022, the estimated number of Swedish residents who were born abroad was approximately two million which forms 20 percent of the population (SCB 2023, SCB 2023a).

As migration flow decreased and the number of individuals granted residency permits rose, the focus shifted to the integration of newcomers, such as political, economic, linguistic, and social dimensions. In terms of political integration, there is a large gap in electoral participation between Swedish-born individuals and those born abroad. The voter turnout among native-born Swedes reached 89 percent, whereas it was 67 percent for foreign-born individuals in the 2022 parliamentary election. The declining numbers in voter turnout between foreign and domestic born individuals continued from 1991 to 2022, reaching a 22-percent difference in the 2022 election (SCB 2023b). The same numbers are true for regional and municipal elections where residents without citizenship are eligible to vote (SCB 2022). Other forms of political participation also exhibit declining numbers. Political party membership and active involvement within politics has declined in Sweden since the 1980s (SCB 2018).

Historically, Sweden has showns active participation in local organizations, party assemblies directed towards internal democracy. These types of engagements voiced and represented society's interests and concerns, which is meant to influence political decisions according to citizens' requirements. However, over recent decades, there has been a significant
decrease in the number of politically engaged citizens, which threatens democratic processes and impacts the system’s legitimacy (Karlsson & Lundberg 2019, pp. 181-182).

From the statistical data it is clear, there is a lack of political participation among immigrants that needs to be addressed. As underrepresentation undermines democratic values and results in uneven distribution of political power and representation, it is crucial to address these differences in voter turnout to ensure a more equal and inclusive democratic process (Ekman 2012, p. 287).

Scientific literature comes forward with various reasons as to why immigrants do not participate politically and why the participation gap between the natives and the newcomers is seemingly large. It starts with common perception circulating in the media that immigrants are indifferent or uninterested in political participation (Adamson 2017, p. 19).

According to countless articles discussing and studying political participation among immigrants, the main reasons for participation apathy are language barriers - without proficiency in the native language immigrants may feel excluded and powerless. Deeper-rooted structural issues, such as economic and social exclusion, segregation impact the participation rates as well (Rooij 2012, pp. 456-460). Another factor that is discussed is post-traumatic stress syndrome. It evolves around transition from non-democratic societies to democratic ones which often does not guarantee immediate shift towards active political involvement. Illiteracy or education, cultural norms are huge obstacles in adapting to the new realities of the host society (Adamson 2017, p. 20-21).

Previous research about political participation among immigrants has given valuable insights into various dimensions of their engagement in democratic processes using multiple variables such as voting behaviors, civic involvement, integration challenges. Most research in this field comes from the United States where they concentrate on the political behavior of ethnic minorities. Unfortunately, Europe is far behind on this subject (André, Dronkers, & Need 2014, p. 7). Studies conducted specifically in Sweden regarding political participation of migrants in the context of socio-economic factors are quite scarce and there is a knowledge gap regarding these elements. It is important to gain more data by different measurement methods and analysis, to understand the interaction between these factors and participation patterns. This paper will
intend to modestly contribute to that gap by a local scale survey analysis involving data on participants’ socio-economic resources and networks in Sweden.

This subject is immensely significant for political science, governance, democratic legitimacy, and decision-making. Political engagement is probably the most political theme available. In democratic countries, participation of different groups is fundamental. Investigating factors influencing immigrants’ political participation contributes to knowledge about equity and inclusivity in a democratic system. The voter turnout gap between native-born Swedes and foreign-born individuals indicates an imbalance of political representation and factors causing this gap needs to be addressed.

1.2. Research objectives/questions

The aim of this study is to contribute to a better understanding of the impact of resources, motivation and networks on the political participation among non-EU immigrants in Sweden. Specifically, this study examines the influence of various resources - such as language skills, education, income level, and occupation - on the electoral participation of non-EU immigrants. In addition, the impact of motivational factors, such as political interest and sense of belonging to the host society, as well as networks related to work, religion, personal interests, socio-political context, and other voluntary organizations, will be explored in the analysis. Thus, the main questions that this paper addresses are:

• How are resources related to the political participation of non-EU immigrants?
• Do the motivational factors measured by political interest and sense of connection with Sweden influence voting behavior of non-EU immigrants.
• What role do networks play in shaping political participation of non-EU immigrants?

1.3 Delimitations

This paper’s focus is non-EU immigrants in Sweden. The focus on this group only, is justified by the fact that previous research shows that immigrants coming from identical cultures and democratic systems adapt faster and show higher levels of political participation. In other words, the greater historical bonds lead to higher odds of cultural and political adaptation among newcomers (Huff, Hanek, Lee, & Brannen 2021, p. 151-153). Political participation is limited to voting only as it is one of the main “modes” of political activism (Norris 2002, p.3). The election
year is limited to the latest parliamentary, municipal, and regional council elections. The paper is also limited to specific independent variables such as language, economic resources, motivation, and social networks. It relies on quantitative data gathered from Sweden’s municipalities such as Stockholm, Västerås, Örebro, Göteborg, Lidköping, Trollhättan, Alingsås, Mariestad, Vara.

1.4 Disposition
This paper contains seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the subject of investigation, clarifies the research gap, and explains political scientific relevance. The second chapter involves around main thesis and questions to be investigated. It explains the delimitations of the paper as well as mentions the previous research in this field. The third chapter introduces the theoretical framework and its components. The fourth chapter includes detailed information about the methods and design used to analyze the variables. The operationalization gives insight into how the variables were materialized. Additionally, criticism and limitations of the method as well as ethical questions are to be found here. It is followed by chapter five which introduces the results of the paper followed by the discussion and conclusion in chapter six. The seventh chapter details the references and sources used to strengthen this paper’s scientific base.

2. Theoretical framework
2.1 Definition of Political Participation and other Key Terms

Before moving forward with the previous research in the field it is important to make some clarifications about the key terms that have been or will be used in this paper. Pervious research in the field of political participation provides various definitions of it:

Ekman & Amnå (2012) typology of political participation and civic engagement distinguishes between explicit - "manifest" forms of political participation and indirect-concealed forms, which is related to civic engagement and social involvement (Ekman & Amnå 2012, p. 256).

Ekman and Amnå’s typology include latent and manifest, as well as individual and collective forms of political participation. The fundament of the classification is based on individual political rights and political representation through factors such as political party affiliation, social class, nationality, or party identification. Explicit political behavior is
understood as "all actions aimed at influencing governmental decisions and political outcomes."
It is classified as formal political participation and encompasses activities like voting in general
elections, participating in referendums, and communicating with politicians and civil servants.
Formal-collective political behavior includes membership in political parties, unions, volunteer
organizations (Ekman and Amnå 2012, p. 290).

There are also "extra-parliamentary" activities in the form of either legal or illegal
activities directed to influence politics. Legal forms are demonstrations, strikes, protests,
network-based social movements etc. Individual-level extra-parliamentary activism is expressed
through signing petitions, distributing political pamphlets, boycotting certain products. Illegal
modes of extra-parliamentary activism include illegal demonstrations or violent protests, riots
(ibid.).

Civic engagement is the individual and collective actions performed by citizens for the
purpose of impacting relevant questions circulating in society. Engagement can be carried out by
discussing politics, keeping up with political events, expressing opinions, donating, recycling.
(Ekman and Amnå 2012, p. 291).

Theocharis & van Deth (2017) try to outline a detailed scheme defining political
participation, consisting of eight decision rules. These rules serve as criteria to classify activities
as political (or non-political) participation. Their main goal is to combine and have a systematic
clarification of old and new forms of political participation (Theocharis & van Deth 2017, p. 63-66).

The first four rules focus on the type of activity. It needs to be voluntary, non-
professional, and directly connected to political sectors. They define it as Political Participation-
I, which includes activities like voting, donating to parties, and signing petitions (Theocharis &
v Deth 2017, p. 66-68).

Rules from 5 to 8 introduce larger perspectives of political participation. They include
activities not directly targeting the government or state but still influencing political affairs. They
termed these types of activities as Political Participation-II, III, and IV. It involves various
actions as demonstrations, community problem-solving initiatives, and creative expressions with
political implications. An example of creative participation is staging an artistic performance
near a government building (Theocharis & van Deth 2017, p. 68-77).
The final rule is to determine if an activity expresses political aims. If an activity meets the criteria of the first three rules but fails to fit rules 5 to 8, it is ruled as non-political. Example can be changing a profile picture in solidarity to some country on social media platforms. As it is not directed towards the government, it is a non-political action (Theocharis & van Deth 2017, p. 77-82).

Asylum seeker, refugee, immigrant

It is as well important to define three concepts closely connected with immigration: asylum seeker, immigrant, and refugee.

Asylum seeker - An asylum seeker is an individual who has departed their homeland and is in search of shelter from persecution and severe human rights violations in a different country (Amnesty international 2023).

Refugee - A refugee is an individual who has escaped their home country due to the imminent threat of grave human rights abuses and persecution which the government cannot or is unwilling to solve (ibid.).

Immigrant/migrant - There is no universally recognized legal description for a migrant. Migrants can be understood as individuals residing outside their country of origin. Some migrants depart their home nation with the intention to work, study, reunite with family, and other reasons. Others are compelled to leave due to factors such as poverty, political instability, gang violence, natural disasters, or other grave conditions prevailing in their homeland (ibid.).

As the intention in this paper is to investigate the political participation of the people who came from outside EU, and not the underlying causes of their immigration, it is logical to use the term “immigrant”.

2.2. Previous research

In this section the paper will concentrate on previous insights regarding the electoral behavior of immigrants conducted in Europe including Sweden.

The article “Voting behavior of immigrants and their children in Sweden” Bevelander, P & Hutcheson, D. S. study the political participation of immigrants and their children. The article
relies on data from Swedish municipal elections from 2002-2014. There is a wide range of variables included in the research, from gender, marital status, age to socio-economic and migration-related variables such as length of stay Sweden, generation (first, second), and citizenship (Bevelander & Hutcheson 2022, s. 428-433). The main findings backup the data claiming that foreign-born individuals’ electoral participation falls behind the natives. Longer stay in the country and acquisition of citizenship increased the odds of participation. Individuals born in Sweden with at least one foreign-born parent showed higher participation odds. Swedish-born individuals who have two foreign-born parents reported lower levels of participation (Bevelander & Hutcheson 2022, pp. 435-439).

Similar study has been carried out in Finland by Hanna Wass, Andre Blais, Alexandre Morin-Chasse, and Marjukka Weide. The article titled "Engaging Immigrants? Examining the Correlates of Electoral Participation among Voters with Migration Backgrounds" investigates social and political aspects affecting foreign-born individuals’ electoral engagement. They utilize data from the 2012 Finnish municipal elections. Similar to Bevelaner & Hutcheson they include nominal level variables (gender, age, education) and various immigration related variables such as migration status, age at migration, marital and parental statuses. They arrived at the conclusion that older immigrants vote if they come from a democratic county. As in case of Swedish study, the presence of a Finish-born partner and joint children raises the participation odds in Finland among immigrants. The greatest effect on electoral participation exhibits the level of democracy in the country of origin. Individuals coming from countries which have similar political system as Finland were more likely to vote (Wass et al., pp. 408-418).

Another investigation about the immigrants’ electoral behavior is conducted in 24 European countries. Here Stefanie Andre, Jaap Dronkers & Ariana Need use data from 24 European (including Sweden) countries to investigate the electoral participation of immigrants. They come up with two models involving “the destination country” and “the origin country” and examine how the characteristics in the host country and country of birth influences the voting behavior (André, Dronkers & Need 2014, p. 7-8). The use of variables in the “destination county” model include occupation, education, social contacts, inequality in social sphere, the presence of an immigrant candidate in the elections, political parties’ ideology. In the “country of origin” model they look at indicator such as societal development, proportionality in elections.
The study relies on data from European Social Survey (ESS). The main results indicate that the level of economic development in the host society plays a major positive role and increases the possibility of participation (André, Dronkers & Need 2014, p. 14-17). Similar to Wass et al.’s study in Finland, they found that individuals coming from countries with stability, civil freedom, development were more likely to vote. Opposite to the expectations, individuals from former colonies showed lower levels of participation contrary to expectations. Second-generation immigrant's turnout was higher compared to their parents’ participation confirming Bevelander’s and Hutcheson’s findings for Sweden (ibid.).

The article “Effects of settlement into ethnic enclaves on immigrant voter turnout” by Henrik Andersson, Nazita Lajevardi, Karl-Oskar Lindgren and Sven Oskarsson, take another approach and study the impact of settling in ethnic enclaves on the future political participation of immigrants. It examines a Swedish refugee placement reform in the mid-1980s and uses individual-level turnout data such as local elections in 1994 and 2010, as well as the 2009 European Parliament election. The study finds little evidence that living in ethnic enclaves, based on ethnic concentration alone, influences immigrant voter turnout. Newly arrived immigrants were equally likely to vote regardless of whether they were settled in neighborhoods with many or few co-ethnics (Andersson et al. p. 580-584).

The study suggests that ethnic concentration mainly affects the speed of political integration by encouraging newly arrived immigrants to start voting sooner. However, in the longer term, voter turnout among immigrants is not significantly impacted by ethnic concentration. The findings as well indicate that ethnic concentration itself might not significantly influence future voter turnout among immigrant communities. Instead, the nature and level of social and political capital within existing ethnic networks might play a more pivotal role in shaping newcomers' prospects for political integration and democratic inclusion (Andersson et al. p. 580-584).

Another article exploring political participation is written by Marco Giugni and Maria Grasso and is titled “Trust, Identity, Skills, or Recruitment? Assessing Four Explanations of the Relationship between Associational Involvement and the Political Participation of Migrants”. It investigates the relationship between involvement in associations and political participation
among migrants, focusing on four theories. Each theoretical model is operationalized through specific variables: social capital (trust), group consciousness (identity), civic voluntarism (skills), and mobilization (recruitment). The analysis aims to highlight which mechanism is empirically supported and sheds light on why joining associations encourages migrant political participation and broader integration. Associational involvement is assessed by membership in various organizations, and another measure considers the amount of time respondents spent in associations. (Giugni & Grasso 2020, p. 585-591).

The article uses data from the LOCALMULTIDEM project, gathering individual-level data through surveys in four European cities: Barcelona, Madrid, Geneva, and Zurich. (Giugni & Grasso 2020, p. 591-595).

The findings show that associational membership has a direct effect on political participation. Migrants involved in voluntary associations are more likely to engage in political activities. Control variables like education and language proficiency also play a role in participation, while factors like political trust and efficacy showed no significant influence. The results also showed that only civic voluntarism (hours devoted to association) and mobilization (years in association) exhibit positive effects as potential mechanisms connecting membership to political participation (Giugni & Grasso 2020, p. 591-606).

The article "Patterns of Immigrant Political Participation" by Eline A. De Rooij tries to identify the differences in political engagement between immigrants and the majority population in Western Europe. It uses data from the ESS to show that immigrant political participation does not follow a certain pattern. It is influenced by factors such as mobilization and residency duration. Research primarily focuses on participation rates rather than why individuals choose certain political acts. Factors like resources, significance of explanatory factors, and immigrant experiences are explored to understand participation differences (De Rooij 2012, p. 455-469).

Key findings show that the role of recruitment via social networks and institutions in political participation helps participation rates, particularly through ethnic and religious associations. The results indicate increased likelihood of engagement in various political acts once individuals participate in one act. Western immigrants demonstrate stronger links between voting and other political acts compared to non-Western immigrants and the majority population.
Factors like integration, recruitment, and citizenship significantly affect these participation patterns (de Rooji 2012, p. 469-471).

Maria Tyrberg (2020) takes distance from socio-economic factors and studies immigrants’ electoral behavior based on experiences of hostility in the host country across 28 European countries using ESS data. The research compares the impact of contextual hostility on immigrants and native residents’ political participation (Tyberg 2020, p. 3211).

The findings show correlation between anti-immigrant attitudes and electoral participation among immigrants. Surprisingly higher anti-immigrant attitudes could positively influence immigrant voting, the effect was different across different levels of hostility. Public hostility negatively affected native residents' voting behavior, contradicting expectations. The author calls for further studies in this area to find the underlying causes for these variations (Tyberg 2020, p. 3218-3222).

The review of existing studies demonstrates the diverse nature of immigrant political participation across various European countries, including Sweden. These articles have studied wide range of factors, including socio-economic status, cultural adaptation, institutional engagement, experiences of hostility in the host country etc. The methods used by these scientists and their findings contribute significantly to understanding the complexities of immigrant electoral behavior.

Building upon these previous studies, this paper aims to add on the existing knowledge with a particular focus on Sweden's experience. While the existing research has shed light on critical aspects, there are gaps that this study aims to address. It aims to concentrate specifically on non-EU immigrants in Sweden and will examine how resources, motivation, and networks influence political engagement among this particular group.

2.3 Theoretical framework – Civic Voluntarism Model

The paper’s theoretical frame is based on Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM) developed by professors Sidney Verba, Kay Lehman Schlozman and Henry E. Brady. In the book *Voices of Equality* (1995) they discuss different forms of political participation and civic voluntarism, the consequences of unequal participation for democracies and legitimacy of institutions. They detail
down on reasons and requirements for political participation which results in the formation of CVM (Verba et al., p. 5-15). Their primary focus was to find factors that could explain why majority of American population chooses to participate only in general elections. They conducted survey analysis and collected data from 15,053 participants via telephone in 1989 and interviewed 2517 people in 1990. The explanatory factors can be divided into three categories – resources, motivation, and social network (recruitment). To answer the question why people are not politically active, they logically reason: because they cannot (connected with resources), because they do not want (connected with motivation) and because nobody asked them or told them to do so (connected with networks) (Verba et al., p. 15-16).

2.3.1 Resources and political participation

Professors Verba, Schlozman and Brady explain political participation by the resources people possess and psychological engagement. Resources are time, money, and civic skills. Resources are the most important part of explaining political participation as they are unevenly distributed and affect politically relevant decisions in society. It gives the opportunity to explain social inequalities through the lenses of inequalities in political activities (Verba et al., p. 334).

Resources are dependent on diverse factors such as income, education, gender, job, religion, and ethnicity (Verba et al. 1995, p. 289). Certain forms of political participation require time. Examples can be- having time to vote or being a member of a political party and participation in meetings. Making donations to a specific party or candidate demands financial means and it is directly connected on what kind of occupation a person has and what income. Civic skills are education, language fluency, occupation (what kind of job a person has). They stress the importance of language in political participation as it is a way to get information and news about the latest happenings. It allows also to get in touch with politicians and participate in discussions (Verba et al. 1995, p. 271-273). Dollmann J. (2022) studies this theme and states that immigrants that do not possess enough language skills, logically obtain less information and correspondingly are less enthusiastic or interested in the political processes of the host society (Dollmann 2022, p. 1094). As the paper investigates political participation of non-EU immigrants, this factor will be studied in detail.
In his book “Language and Symbolic Power” Pierre Bourdieu reflects upon language as a social and political phenomenon and how these two are interconnected. Bourdieu states that language is a form of social and political capital. It is related to power, authority, and social hierarchy. Language is a shared resource of a society and the ones who master it better get better opportunities (Bourdieu 1986, p. 163-171). By examining the language proficiency of immigrants, this paper can provide insights into its connection with voting behavior.

An article by Grotlüschen, Chachashvili-Bolotin, Heilmann & Dutz, G. (2021, p. 43-44) look at education and literacy factors and come to the conclusion that is has huge impact on political participation. Education also guarantees better job opportunities and economic stability. This is a chain reaction and economic stability can lead to less working hours and more free time.

Robert Putnam's book "Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community" discusses the decline in social capital and civic engagement in the United States. He observed that socio-economic changes impacted various aspects of community involvement, political trust, and political participation. He suggests that factors regarding employment (longer working hours, unsatisfying working conditions, commuting, unemployment, low income) have an impact on political involvement. He also discusses economic inequality and its link to political trust among citizens (Putman 2002, p.31-47). Financial difficulties can make the immigrants to prioritize meeting basic needs over engaging in political affairs. Unemployment can lead to feelings of dispatchment from broader society, affecting their motivation to participate in political activities.

Considering the importance of resources in political participation and the conclusions from the previous research it is expected that individuals that possess better linguistic skills in Swedish will show more interest and participation in elections. As well as, immigrants that are employed, have higher income and education will be more reluctant and interested towards politics.

2.3.2 Political motivation

By motivation the authors mean political interest, efficacy, information, partisan strength and group consciousness that is explained by the connection with other members of society.
Little interest in political issues, lack of knowledge about the political process, lack of trust in politicians, feelings of isolation from the society, disbelief that their voice will not change anything impact political participation. Various modes of political participation demand different resources and the authors conclude that social, economic and psychological factors are interconnected and affect each other (Verba et al. 1995, p. 16; 272).

The authors stress that political participation can be measured by political interest, knowledge, and feelings towards the society. Group consciousness, which is the connection with other members of the same society is directly connected with what political activities they undertake. The more they feel accepted and part of a bigger cause the more they are politically active (Verba et al. 1995, p. 334, 352).

The article co-authored by Nadzeya Laurentsyeva and Alessandra Venturini “The Social Integration of Immigrants and the Role of Policy – A Literature Review”, emphasizes that social integration significantly impacts political participation among immigrants. It highlights that for immigrants to effectively engage in the political sphere of their new homeland, they need to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance within the society. This involves understanding the values, norms, and societal behaviors of the host country (Laurentsyeva & Venturini 2017, p. 285-288).

From this section this paper will utilize the notion of political interest and group consciousness. More detailed, immigrants that show political interest and experience sense of connection with Swedish society are expected to show higher level of voting patterns.

2.3.3 Networks

The last factor that influences political participation are networks through which an individual can be driven towards participation. Verba, Schlozman & Brady state that the influence of social organizations, party membership, educational institutions, workplace are of great importance (Verba et al. 1995, p.132-134). This is about communication and information interchange via contacts, which in its turn can increase the interest in politics. Through networks individuals get more information about how to vote, when, the party policies, the importance of engagement etc. People that engage in discussions have better chances of gaining knowledge and more likely to participate (Verba et al. 1995, p. 369–370).
People that have local friends and contacts, local relationships are expected to engage more in political activities as they do not feel segregated and experience native culture first handed (Tselios, Noback, & McCann, 2015, p. 418-421).

In conclusion individuals who take part in different groups and associations will be more prone to politically engage in the host society.

3. Method and material
3.1 Quantitative method

This paper is based on quantitative method with hypothetical-deductive approach. This means the paper relies on theory, formulates research objectives, collects and analyzes the data, and then draws conclusions (Bryman 2016, p. 149–151). Quantitative method gives the opportunity to translate the data into numbers. It usually happens with the help of different digital programs which can process huge amounts of information (ibid. p. 354). In this case it is going to be SPSS.

Before doing that, it is required to have indicators and measures to quantify abstract concepts. Measures are direct quantities like household income or age, while indicators indirectly represent less quantifiable concepts like interest in politics, feelings of belonging. Indicators serve as proxies for these concepts, allowing their measurement. There are several ways to operationalize indicators (ibid. p. 152-153). The most common ways to get data are surveys and interview analysis. Surveys have different formats such as online or Webb-based, sent by post and SMS, face to face. Depending on the time and resources the researcher can combine any of these forms of survey analysis as mixing gives opportunities to gather more data (Esaiasson, Gilljam, Oscarsson, Towns, & Wängnerud 2017, p. 187, p. 240-241).

3.2 Operationalization (Survey Analysis)

As stated before, the paper is bases on survey. CVM model’s target group are Americans and their political participation. To operationalize the variables of their theory (education, income, job level, religious attendance, civic skills, political interest etc.), Verba et al. came up with various survey questions such as: Have you ever written a letter, organized a meeting, given
speech. In language skills section they asked participants to choose synonyms for a word, if they speak English at home (Verba et al. 1995, p. 560-561). These questions are not suitable for this paper as the target group here are non-EU immigrants.

Instead, the survey questions are adopted from the Immigration Policy Lab (IPL) questionnaire designed by Niklas Hardera, Lucila Figueroa, Rachel M. Gilluma, David D. Laitina (Immigration Policy Lab, Stanford University), Dominik Hangartnerb, and Jens Hainmueller (Immigration Policy Lab, ETH Zurich, Department of Government, London School of Economics and Political Science). After consulting various survey methods and previous research in the field, they came up with short questionnaires available IPL-12 and IPL-24 forms. The IPL Index can be adapted across various national and local context. Four surveys were conducted to evaluate the IPL Index's performance, which confirmed its ability to differentiate between immigrant groups with varying levels of integration (Harder, Figueroa, Gillum, Hangartner, Laitin, & Hainmueller 2018, p. 1-4).

The questions are constructed as simple as possible and are mostly multiple-choice type. The authors specifically have designed questions for immigrants who can possible have limited knowledge of the dominant language of a society (Harder el al. 2018, p. 1-4). As the survey questions are designed for investigations conducted in US, Germany, Switzerland, I reconstructed them to correspond to Swedish political and social reality (for details see Appendix 1).

**Dependent variable-political participation:** To understand if the individuals voted or not the question if they have voted in the last municipality or general elections was asked.

**Independent variables/Resources:** To understand how the knowledge of Swedish language affects the political participation, questions about the writing, reading, understanding, and listening skills were asked. To estimate the level of economic resources questions about the level of education, occupation and income were formulated.

**Independent variables/motivation:** Motivation is measured by the questions about the political interest and sense of belonging.

**Independent variables/networks:** To understand if networks contribute to the political participation of the immigrants, questions about membership in work related, religious, political, interest and volunteer organization were asked.
The questions in the survey are on nominal and ordinal scale. Nominal scale involves non-ordered categories where responses do not have any inherent order or rank (Thrane & Torhell 2019, s. 35). Questions about the country of origin, year of arrival, age, occupation, and gender fall under this category. They collect categorical data without any inherent order or rank. Respondents here were free to provide answers to the first three questions themselves without having to choose from options.

The other questions are on ordinal scale: This scale involves ordered categories or a rank order without specifying the exact differences between the categories (Thrane & Torhell 2019, p. 35-37). Ordinal scale questions have the scoring system from 1-5 (Likert’s scale) (Bryman 2016, p. 693).

3.3 Sampling and Data

The paper is based on 115 respondents that were taken in Sweden’s municipalities including Stockholm, Västerås, Örebro, Göteborg, Linköping, Trollhättan, Alingsås, Mariestad, Vara, Lindesberg. Participants include immigrants that are over 18 years old, came from outside EU, have Swedish residency permit or citizenship and are eligible to vote in municipality or parliamentary elections. The survey was available in two languages – Swedish and English as well as in digital and hard copies. For digital version Google Forms was used to construct it. It is a useful and environmental-friendly tool that gives the opportunity to upload surveys on various social media channels and send the survey in forms of SMS and e-mail.

Gathering of data includes various methods such as face to face meetings with the participants in shopping centers, food stores, train stations and inside the train. Majority asked for SMS link to be able to fill it in at home. Many filled it in at place on PC, android tab or hard copies. The link of the survey was also sent via Facebook messenger and was left on different municipality and immigrant community Facebook pages after getting permission to do so. Attempts have been made to gather data via hitta.se digital telephone book where the mobile numbers are sorted according to the regions. The idea was to select 10 foreign names and surnames from each region and send out SMS. This tactic never worked as there are a lot of frauds and deceptions occurring via phones and people are reluctant to open the links.
There are two types of sampling methods in quantitative research – probability and non-probability. Probability sampling involves random selection, ensuring each member of the population has an equal chance to be included in the sample. This method provides the opportunity to have high statistical inference and generalizability (Bryman 2016, p. 176-181). Non-Probability sampling does not rely on random selection and might not provide representation of the entire population. Results might not be generalizable or representative, but these methods can be more practical in certain situations where the resources are limited (Bryman 2016, p. 187-191).

As this is a bachelor’s degree paper the time and resource were limited. Hence the non-probability/convenience sampling is used here. Convenience sampling involves selecting individuals who are easiest to reach. It is quick and inexpensive but might not be representative of the entire population. There is uncertainty regarding whether the respondents included in this survey analysis accurately portray the population from which the sample was drawn (Bryman 2016, p. 187-191).

3.4 Data summary, descriptive statistics

The largest number of respondents came from Syria (29), followed by Somalia (16) and Afghanistan (11). Other countries include Armenia, Nigeria, Thailand, Iran, Iraq, Azerbaijan China, Kazakhstan, Yemen, Livia, Uganda. The arrival year is between 1997-2020. The gender represented by nominal scale with the division 1 woman, 2-man, 3 other, 4 do not want to specify. 58 of the participants were men, 54 were women and 1 was classified as other. The age mean of the respondents is 40. It is possible here to create a dummy variable (1) 18-40 and (2) 41-58. Table 1 below represent the descriptive statistics of the data.

N (Sample Size) indicates the number of valid responses. Minimum represents the smallest value for each variable. Maximum is the contrary - the largest value observed for each variable. Mean is the average value of the variable across all respondents. Standard Deviation indicates how much individual values differ from the average (Bryman 2016, p. 373).
Table 1 Descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Participants characteristics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrival year</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>2020</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Variable:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voted 1 - not voted 0</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resources:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading skills</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening skills</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking skills</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total household income</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in politics</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feelings of belonging</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Networks:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work, trade union, company membership</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious (church, mosque, synagogue, or</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other volunteer organization</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Research strategy

To answer the paper’s main questions logistic regression method is chosen. The choice is based on multiple factors. Regression models are useful tools in finding the relationship between a response variable and explanatory factors. In the context of logistic regression, the model finds the best relationship between an outcome variable and a set of independent variables. These independent variables (called covariates) indicate the influence on the dependent variable (Hosmer, Lemeshow, & Sturdivant 2013, p. 1-2).

Logistic regression is used when the dependent variable is binary and estimates the probability of an event occurring based on various predictors (example, voted, not voted). The probabilities stand between 0 and 1. Coefficients in logistic regression estimate the change in log-odds connected with a unit change in the independent variables (IBM 2023).

In logistic regression the Exp(B) value is important. It shows how the independent variables impact the odds of the dependent variable. When Exp(B) is 1, no effect is registered. When Exp(B) value is below 1 it implies a decrease in the odds. When it is above 1, it means an increase in the odds of the outcome (Halperin & Heath 2020, p. 472-473) For example, if odds show 1.40 it indicates that voting chances are 40 percent higher and the independent variable (example – language skills) effects the dependent variable.

It is also important to test if the relationships between variables are significant. A significance (Sig. or p-value) level of less than 0.05 is needed to feel confident that the observed effects are not due to chance. Nagelkerke R Square is used in logistic regression to evaluate how well the model predicts the outcome. Nagelkerke R Square measures how much the independent variables are responsible for the dependent variable’s behavior. When the value of Nagelkerke’s R-squared (R²) is 0, it indicates that the model does not explain any variation in the dependent variable. When the value shows 1, the prediction is highly accurate. However, it is important to note that Nagelkerke R Square tends to provide an expanded estimate compared to traditional R-squared in linear regression (ibid.).
3.6 Index

This paper includes several independent variables with multiple choice questions, and it is logical to recode and make an index of the data to make it more manageable. First, it is needed to clarify what an index is and why it is being used in this paper. In quantitative research, an index forms a common score that combines multiple variables into one. It is meant to simplify a larger concept which makes it easier to analyze and understand complex phenomena. In an index the choice of variables must be careful as all variables must be on the same scale before creating the index. Index as well needs to be validated. This involves measuring reliability and validity of the index (Esaiasson 2017, p. 397-398). It is being done by Cronbach's alpha statistical measure to understand the internal consistency of a scale or index. When multiple items or variables are combined to form an index, Cronbach's alpha helps to determine how well these items or variables measure the same underlying concept. Higher alpha values (needs to be above 0.7 or 0.8) indicate greater reliability. This means that variables in the index are measuring the same concept steadily (Esaiasson 2017, p. 399).

3.7 Compute and recoded Variables

Language skills were measured by reading, speaking, writing, and listening abilities. To create an index for language proficiency levels, categorical variables indicating language proficiency were turned into numeric values. The score is 'Very well' (5), 'Well' (4), 'Moderately well' (3), 'not well' (2), 'not well at all' (1).

These numeric values were used to create an index representing overall language proficiency. The score for each respondent was calculated by taking the average of the numerical values gathered from various language factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cronbach’s Alpha shows that the value for language skills index is 0.978. This indicates a high level of reliability which means that variables in language skill index are consistent with each other.

Another index was constructed regarding the membership in different organizations: 1. Work, trade union, company, or professional organization. 2. religious beliefs, such as a church, mosque, synagogue, or other religious organization. 3. interests, such as sports, leisure or cultural group. 4. social or political cause, such as a voluntary organization or political party. 5. Volunteer organization. The scoring system is — participate at least once a week (5), participate at least once a month (4), participate at least once a year (3), belong but not actively participate (2), do not belong and do not participate (1).

### Reliability Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.793</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Income Variable was recoded based on average Swedish household income (693,469 SEK per year). The most typical earning is 541,309 SEK (Average salary survey 2023).

1=100,000-250,000; 2= 250,000-550,000; 3= 550,000-750,000; 4= 750,000-1,200,000; 5= 1,200,000-1,650,000

### 3.8 Ethical considerations

In social science ethical questions are of great importance in order to protect the personal identity and data referring to the participants. In his book “Social research methods” Allan Byrman mentions 4 ethical principles that researchers need to follow (Bryman 2016, p. 125-126). The respondents need to have complete information about the study’s purpose, and they were given detailed information regarding the study's aim, and goals in the survey. They also were informed how the data will be used. They were informed that their participation was voluntary, and they could stop the survey at any given time.
Anonymity is another ethical aspect that this paper follows. The confidentiality of participant data was handled with caution. Information that included names and contact details was kept separate from the research data. Responses are numbered to protect the participant privacy. During face-to-face contacts no personal data was gathered. During the data gathering the participants were treated with respect and consideration in order to avoid any emotional distress.

To fulfill the transparency criterion of ethical consideration, the participants were given detailed information about all aspect of the paper. They were informed that they can get the final version of the study. Every survey contained contact information including (address, mobile number, and e-mail), in case the respondents had any further questions or would need clarifications about the survey questions.

3.9 Validity, reliability, and generalizability

Validity

Validity in quantitative research estimates if an instrument measures what it claims to measure. It is about whether the research accurately formulated the concept it claims to be studying. Validity is important as it identifies that the conclusions the research came to are trustworthy and meaningful (Bryman 2016, p. 42-43). The questions used in this study were designed based on established theoretical frameworks and prior research in the field of immigrant political participation. The Immigration Policy Lab (IPL) Integration Index was adapted and utilized as a measure of political participation in Sweden. The survey included questions about political interest, feelings of belonging, language skills, and involvement in various networks that were theoretically linked to political participation. Statistical methods were used to establish the relationships between these variables and the actual voting behavior of the respondents.

Reliability

Reliability in quantitative research refers to the consistency, stability, and dependability of the methods used in the study. It indicates to what extent the results gained from the research using a specific method and tool can be repeated (replicated) (Bryman 2016, p. 157).
The survey items used to measure language skills, interest in politics, and network involvement show high internal consistency. This was assessed using statistical methods like Cronbach's alpha to ensure that the items reliably measured the same underlying concept.

Unfortunately, due to the short time it was impossible to do test-Retest reliability to ensure that the survey questions generated consistent responses over time. Instead that part can be confirmed by the 4 successful test surveys that the IPL crew has done to ensure the reliability of their method.

**Generalizability (external validity)**

In quantitative research, generalizability refers to the quality of extending the findings from a sample to a larger population that has similar characteristics. It helps to do predictions about a broader group based on the data collected from a smaller group. Researchers try to achieve high generalizability to make their conclusions more representative (Bryman 2016, p.164).

This paper includes a sample of 115 non-EU immigrants residing in various cities across Sweden. Efforts were made to gather responses from different geographical locations and backgrounds to enhance the sample's representativeness. But the locations include only middle parts of Sweden. Logically, the paper does not include data from the north and south. The net-based samples can also be biased as people that do not have access to the internet and social media accounts do not have the possibility to participate. Additionally, the sample size, though adequate for analysis, might have limitations in representing the entire immigrant population.

Findings and conclusions made from this paper are context specific, that is limited to Sweden. Different cultural or socio-political contexts might not share the same characteristics.

**4. Results and analysis**

The analysis will be conducted with control variables to make sure that other factors do not affect the correlation between the variables. To understand how the variables affect the outcome, the analysis was conducted in separate models according to the theoretical framework. For each model a separate regression analysis was carried out. Table 2 demonstrates the results.
4.1 Recourses

In “Resources model (1)” variables such as language skills, education, occupation, total household income are included. All studied variables here showed a significant relation with the outcome variable, except for control variables ‘Gender’ (p = 0.349), ‘Age’ (p=0.9) and ‘Total household income’ (p = 0.321), which were found to be not statistically significant. ‘The Language_skill_index’ variable (p = 0.004) demonstrated a strong significant association (p < 0.01) with an odds ratio of 3.361(expB), suggesting that for each unit increase in the language skills index, the odds of the outcome variable increase by a factor of 3.361, that is better language skills provide higher participation rates. ‘Education’ (p = 0.022) and ‘Occupation’ (p = 0.078) also showed significant associations (p < 0.05) with the probability of participating in the elections, with odds ratios of 2.155 and 1.774, respectively.

Nagelkerke R Square value for this model suggests that the independent variables in this model collectively explain approximately 61% of the variation in the binary outcome variable.

4.2 Motivation

“Model 2” includes variables ‘Interest in politics’ measured by how often individuals discuss politics, and ‘Feelings of belonging’ measured by the degree the individuals feel connected to Sweden.

The analysis in Model 2 shows that 'Interest in politics' (p < 0.001) and 'Feelings of belonging' (p < 0.001) both show statistically significant associations with the outcome variable. 'Interest in politics' demonstrates a significant positive relationship (p < 0.001) with an odds ratio of 2.977. This means that individuals who engage in political discussions are three times more likely to participate in the elections.

Similarly, 'Feelings of belonging' have strong association (p < 0.001) with an odds ratio of 6.885. This suggests that individuals with a stronger sense of belonging to Sweden are almost seven times more likely to partake in voting. Control variables are statistically insignificant. The Nagelkerke R Square value for this model stands at 59 percent. It indicates that the variables in Model 2 explain approximately 59% of the variance in the binary variable.
4.3 Networks

Networks constitute “Model 3” and here the individuals’ association with various groups and the impact the connections exhibit on the voting behavior is examined. The analysis showed ‘The Networks_Index’ (p < 0.001) has statistical significance impact on voting behavior. Exp(B) value shows that individuals participating in groups are 2.234 times more likely to vote compared to those who do not. Gender and Age are not statistically significant factors here as well.

It is interesting to note that when groups were analyzed separately in SPSS without index, membership in work, trade union, company, or professional organization indicated a statistically significant effect on voting behavior with p < 0.001 and Exp(B) value of 3.435. Interest groups (sports, leisure, cultural) showed a p-value of 0.001 and Exp(B) value of 2.657 which indicates significance.

Membership in religious organizations (Church, Mosque, Synagogue, etc.) and social or political groups (voluntary organization, political party) were statistically insignificant in predicting voting behavior.

Table 2 (For clearance and better readability, in the table the results are rounded and included only by 2 digits).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1 Exp (B)</th>
<th>Model 2 Exp (B)</th>
<th>Model 3 Exp (B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resources</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language skill index</td>
<td>3.3***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2.1***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>1.7*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in Politics</td>
<td>2.7***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Feelings of belonging | 6.8*** |
Networks | |
Network_index | 2.2*** |
Nagelkerke R Square | 61% | 59% | 61% |

- $p < 0.001$ (***): Extremely significant
- $0.001 \leq p < 0.01$ (**): Very significant
- $0.01 \leq p < 0.05$ (*): Significant
- $p \geq 0.05$: Not significant

5. Discussion and conclusion

The focus of this paper was to study the political participation behavior among non-EU immigrants in Sweden. Based on Verba et al.’s Civic Voluntarism model and the previous research, several variables were chosen like language skills, economic status, motivation, and network memberships.

The findings confirmed that resources correlate with the political participation of non-EU immigrants. The results indicate that higher language skills are indeed associated with increased possibilities of political involvement among non-EU immigrants in Sweden. The same conclusion was drawn by Professors Verba, Schlozman and Brady for the US. They found out that the individuals who had the opportunity to get higher education and who used English as mother language showed higher participation patterns (Verba et al., p. 307). It was surprising to see that when combined with control variable “age”, it did not show a statistically significant impact on voting patterns in this context as it did in the study conducted in Finland. This can be summed up by Pierre Bourdieu’s statement that language is a shared resource of a society and the ones who master it better get better opportunities (Bourdieu 1986, p. 163-171).

The variables education, occupation and household income were found to be positively connected with political participation. This suggests that immigrants who are employed, have
higher income and education will be more reluctant and interested towards politics. Individuals that are financially stable and have education tend to exercise their voting right. When analyzed with control variables, the results did not show significant effects on political engagement in relation to economic factors. Education and occupation had higher odds to influence participation. The data as well matches Robert Putnam’s observations about socio-economic factors and their impact on various aspects of community involvement, political trust, and political participation. He suggests that factors regarding employment, income etc. have positive impact on political participation (Putman 2002, p.31-47).

The results for motivation model, in the form of interest in political discussions and feelings of belonging to Sweden, showed a strong positive correlation with voting behavior. Interest in politics has specifically very high odds. Verba et al. consider these motivational aspects as socio-psychological which implies meeting with people, exchanging information, feeling as a part of a bigger cause. If a person has contact with other members of society, there are bigger odds for discussions and information exchange. It gives the opportunity to gain knowledge about the political system. Feelings of belonging to Sweden also exhibited a strong positive association with voting behavior. Contacting and socializing with locals develops those feelings and increases group consciousness (Verba et al., p. 334-336). It aligns with the conclusions made by Nadzeya Laurentsyeva and Alessandra Venturini (2017) in “The Social Integration of Immigrants and the Role of Policy”. They claim that to effectively engage in the political processes of the host society, the migrants need to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance within the society. Thus, it can be concluded that immigrants that show political interest and experience sense of connection with Swedish society show higher level of voting patterns.

The last model is the group membership. Verba and his colleagues emphasized that individuals who are part of various social networks and community groups tend to have higher levels of political participation. Being connected to different social circles provides opportunities for political discussions, information sharing, and involvement in civic activities. In their research they came to the conclusion that religious organizations (particularly churches) and voluntary organizations play a huge role in political participation of the citizens in the US (Verba et al., p. 333, 521). In this paper the data shows that groups connected with interests (such as a
sports, leisure or cultural group) and work influence the immigrant’s voting patterns the most. Political scientists Marco Giugni and Maria Grasso came the same conclusion in a study conducted in Barcelona, Madrid, Geneva, and Zurich. They found that associational involvement supports immigrants’ political participation (Giugni & Grasso 2020, p. 591-606).

It is safe to conclude that individuals who take part in different groups and associations will be more prone to politically engage in the host society.

In conclusion, this paper investigated the relation between various socio-demographic, motivational, and relational factors and their impact on political participation among non-EU immigrants in Sweden. The study has contributed to the existing knowledge base, providing modest insights into this complex phenomenon in Sweden’s context. To keep the process comprehensible and structural the paper follows established theoretical frameworks and prior research in the field of immigrant political participation. The data is managed and analyses by numerous statistical methods and tools like Cronbach’s alpha and Nagelkerke R.

For the future studies qualitative methods or in-depth interviews could complement the quantitative findings and provide better insights into immigrants’ experiences and perceptions. Quantitative methods give context but do not include the details of people’s experiences. While the study included some control variables like age and gender, other influential factors, such as cultural integration measures, length of residency, or socio-political experiences in their home countries should be analyzed as well. Longitudinal studies are useful tools for tracking changes in participation patterns over time. It would give insights into how these behaviors evolve and are influenced by various factors.

6. References


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UNCHR (2022) Global report – Europe Europe | Global Focus (unhcr.org) [2023.11.06]


7. Appendix 1 (survey)

Samtycke:
Genom att fylla i och returnera enkäten samtycker du till att delta i undersökningen. Ditt deltagande är frivilligt, och du har rätt att avbryta när som helst utan att det påverkar dina rättigheter. Alla dina svar kommer att behandlas konfidentiellt och användas endast för forskningsändamål.

Vänligen fyll i enkäten noggrant och ärligt. Om du har några frågor eller vill ha mer information om undersökningen, vänligen kontakta oss på 0765569977 - Theresa Marklund. E-mail: theresa.marklu@gmail.com

Tack för ditt deltagande!
Underskrift ……………………………

Information om undersökningen:
Enkäten handlar om politisk deltagande av flyktingar i det svenska samhället och systemet i allmänhet. Enkäten vill undersöka hur resurser, motivation och sociala kontakter påverkar politisk deltagandet. Deltagarna är flyktningar som är födda utanför EU, har fyllt 18 år och kan rösta in allmänna, kommunala val.

Allmänna frågor
1. Varifrån kommer ni? ………………………………….
2. Vilket år kom ni till Sverige? ………………………
3. Hur gammal är ni? ……………………………………
4. Vilken typ av utbildning du har? Ingen…, skola…, gymnasium, universitet…, yrkesutbildning…
5. Sysselsättningen: Jobbar … Studerar … Arbetssökande … Annat … (Svara med ×).
6. Kön: Man…. Kvinna ..., annat..., vill ej specificera...

Ringa in (markera) det mest troliga svaret (Denna del av undersökningen försöker identifiera hur väl deltagarna känner till det svenska politiska systemet och nivån på deras politiska deltagande, inklusive valdeltagande och medborgarengagemang.

Politisk deltagande och intresse.
1. Under de senaste 12 månaderna, hur ofta har du vanligtvis diskuterat politiska frågor som rör Sverige med andra?
   • Aldrig (1)
   • En gång om året (2)
   • En gång i månaden (3)
   • En gång i veckan (4)
   • Nästan varje dag (5)

2. Har du deltagit i det senaste svenska valet (både kommunal- och riksdagsnivå)?
   • Ja (1)
3. Människor deltar ibland i olika typer av grupper eller föreningar. Hur ofta deltar du i en gemensam aktivitet i en grupp?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Delta minst en gång i veckan (5)</th>
<th>Delta minst en gång i månaden (4)</th>
<th>Delta minst en gång om året (3)</th>
<th>Tillhör men deltar inte aktivt (2)</th>
<th>Tillhör inte och deltar inte (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>En grupp relaterad till ditt arbete, som en fackförening, företag eller yrkesorganisation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>En grupp relaterad till dina religiösa övertygelser, som en kyrka, moské, synagoga eller annan religiös organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>En grupp relaterad till dina intressen, som en idrotts-, fritids- eller kulturgrupp</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>En grupp relaterad till en social eller politisk sak, såsom en frivilligorganisation eller politiskt parti</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En annan frivilligorganisation</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Social samhörighet (Här vill vi förstå hur din känsla av tillhörighet i det svenska samhället påverkar ditt politiska deltagande.
1. Hur stark är din känsla av samhörighet med Sverige?
   - Jag känner en extremt stark samhörighet. (5)
   - Jag känner en mycket stark samhörighet. (4)
   - Jag känner en måttligt stark samhörighet. (3)
   - Jag känner en svag samhörighet. (2)
   - Jag känner ingen samhörighet alls. (1)

5. Lingvistik förmågor: Här vill vi förstå hur kunskapsnivån i svenska påverkar människors intresse för politik.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>• Mycket bra (5)</th>
<th>• Bra (4)</th>
<th>• Ganska bra (3)</th>
<th>• Inte bra (2)</th>
<th>• Inte alls bra (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jag kan läsa och förstå huvudpoängen i enkla tidningsartiklar om bekanta ämnen.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I en konversation kan jag prata om bekanta ämnen och uttrycka personliga åsikter.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag kan skriva brev om mina upplevelser, känslor och händelser.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jag kan lyssna på och förstå huvudpoängen i radio- eller TV-program om bekanta ämnen.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1. Vad är din hushålls totala årliga inkomst (före skatt och avdrag) från alla källor? Om du inte vet den exakta summan, vänligen ge en uppskattning.

Ditt hushåll inkluderar alla personer med vilka du delar en lägenhet eller ett hus och som du också är släkt med genom födelse, äktenskap, partnerskap eller adoption.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mindre än 150,000 kr.</th>
<th>600,000 – 750,000 kr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>150,000 – 250,000 kr.</td>
<td>750,000 – 900,000 kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250,000–350,000 kr.</td>
<td>990,000 – 1,200,000 kr.</td>
</tr>
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<td>---------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350,000 – 450,000 kr.</td>
<td>1,200,000 – 1,650,000 kr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>450,000 – 600,000 kr.</td>
<td>1,650,000 kr. eller mer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>